

**Community structure and feeding ecology of meiofauna associated with methane seepage
at the Darwin mud volcano (Gulf of Cádiz)**

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ABSTRACT: We sampled the Darwin mud volcano (MV) for meiofaunal community and trophic structure in relation to pore-water geochemistry along a 10-m transect from a seep site on the rim of the crater towards the MV slope. Pore-water profiles indicated considerable variation in upward methane (CH₄) flow among sediment cores taken along the transect, with highest flux in the seep sediment core, gradually decreasing along the transect, to no CH₄ flux in the core taken at a 5 m distance. Low sulphate concentrations and high levels of total alkalinity and sulphide (H₂S) suggested that anaerobic oxidation of methane (AOM) occurred close to the sediment surface in the seep sediment core. High H₂S

levels had a genus and species-specific impact on meiofaunal densities. Nematode genus composition varied gradually between sediment cores, with the genus *Sabatieria* dominating almost all sediment cores. However, genus diversity increased with increasing distance from the seep site. These limited data suggest that the community structure of seep meiofauna is highly dependent on local (a)biotic habitat characteristics, and a typical seep meiofauna community cannot be delineated. Stable isotope values suggested the nematode diet up to 10 m from the seep site included thiotrophic carbon. The thicker hemipelagic sediment layer (photosynthetic carbon), the increased trophic diversity, and the heavier nematode $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ farther from the seep site suggest a decrease in thiotrophy and an increase in photosynthetic carbon in the nematode diet.

Key words: cold seeps; diversity; stable isotopes; nematodes; diet

INTRODUCTION

Mud volcanoes (MVs), geological structures driven by fluid flow, are characterized by a high patchiness of biochemical and physical characteristics. Fluid flow rates, pore-water concentrations of hydrogen sulphide (H_2S) and methane (CH_4), and the thickness of the hemipelagic sediment veneer, on top of the reduced sediments, can change rapidly over short distances (m - cm) (Levin et al. 2003). The heterogeneity in these properties is the main parameter driving the distribution of macro- and megafauna at seeps (Levin 2005), resulting in patches of tubeworm clusters, mussels or clams, and bacterial mats or bare reduced sediments. Meiofauna can also vary on a scale of meters in taxonomic composition and biodiversity in relation to sediment biogeochemistry (Van Gaever et al. 2009c).

There is no consistent meiofaunal response to seep conditions. Meiofaunal densities at different deep-sea seeps are higher (Olu-Le Roy et al. 1997, Van Gaever et al. 2006) or similar (Shirayama & Ohta 1990) compared to non-seep sediments. In seep environments, nematodes usually are the predominant metazoans, although sometimes copepods dominate (Van Gaever et al. 2006). Generally, deep-sea nematodes are characterized by high local diversity (Lambshead & Boucher 2003). Cold seeps, however, exhibit substantially reduced species diversity, harbouring only a few dominant species (Levin 2005, Vanreusel et al. 2010). The low diversity in these habitats has been attributed to the harsh abiotic conditions, created by the high H₂S and low oxygen levels (Levin 2005).

Besides high biogeochemical and physical heterogeneity, seeps differ from most deep-sea environments in the local production of organic matter through chemosynthesis. Consequently, possible food sources for seep fauna, including meiobenthos, are (1) organic matter derived from symbiotic chemoautotrophic bacteria, and (2) free-living chemoautotrophic bacteria, in addition to (3) the photosynthetic organic matter, delivered to all deep-sea habitats. Studies on the diet of seep meiofauna are few. Both Van Gaever *et al.* (2006, 2009b) and Spies & DesMarais (1983) found seep nematodes to be feeding on free-living sulphur-oxidising bacteria. To date, there is no evidence of symbioses between nematodes and chemosynthetic bacteria at deep-sea seeps (Vanreusel et al. 2010), and observations of symbionts associated with seep nematodes are restricted to shallow waters (Dando et al. 1991, Ott et al. 2004).

This study examined the community structure and feeding ecology of the meiofauna, with a focus on nematodes, at a MV in the Gulf of Cádiz, which we then related to geochemical gradients along a 10-m transect going from a seep site towards nearby

hemipelagic surface sediments, and 2 sites farther away from seep influence. This study differs from previous analyses on seep meiofauna, because it concerns isolated seep sediments on a low-activity MV. We addressed the following questions:

- Does pore-water composition influence horizontal and vertical distribution of meiofauna on a small scale?
- Are the seep sediments colonized by a specialized community that differs from the hemipelagic sediments in density, biomass and taxonomic composition (genera and species)?
- What is the nematode diet inferred from stable isotope analyses and buccal morphology? Do seep conditions influence nematode trophic diversity?

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study area. The Gulf of Cádiz (34°- 37°15' N, 9° - 6°45' W) is a tectonically active region west of the Strait of Gibraltar, encompassing the boundary between the European and African plate. It is one of the largest cold-seep areas on the European margins with over 30 MVs between 200 and 4000 m deep (Pinheiro et al. 2003, Somoza et al. 2003, Van Rensbergen et al. 2005).

The summit (1100 m depth) of the Darwin MV (35°23.51' N 7°11.48'W; Fig. 1A) is covered with a large, fractured carbonate crust. At the time of sampling, countless, but mostly empty, *Bathymodiolus mauritanicus* shells covered the MV top (Genio et al. 2008). Living specimens were only present in small clumps along cracks in the crust. When disturbed by the ROV temperature probe, a small area of dark-coloured sediment (± 100 cm²), from here on referred to as “seep site”, emitted gas. Small carbonate blocks and white sediments, indicative of bacterial activity, which covered hard substrate, surrounded the

seep site (Vanreusel et al. 2009). No dense aggregations of living chemosynthetic megafauna were associated with the seep sediments or 2 m away. At the MV centre, non-chemosynthetic megafauna comprised scavenging crabs, corals and stylasterine corals, attached to the carbonate crust.

Sampling strategy. Sediment cores were collected during the JC10 expedition to the Gulf of Cádiz in May 2007 onboard the RRS *James Cook* (Table 1). We were unable to collect replicate samples because of the high heterogeneity of the habitat and the small size of the seep site. However, this study is the first to identify potential interactions between seep meiofauna and pore-water geochemistry measured at such a small spatial scale. Furthermore, no meiofauna data were available from the Gulf of Cádiz so far, although it forms an important faunal cross road between the Mediterranean and the Atlantic.

Using ROV Isis, we collected 2 push cores (PUCs, 25.5 cm²) at each of the 4 sites along a 10-m transect between the seep site and an area with a considerably thicker hemipelagic sediment layer (Fig. 1; Table 1). One PUC was taken with a core-liner, with openings every 2 cm, to extract pore-water using Rhizons (Seeberg-Elverfeldt et al. 2005). These pore-waters were sub-sampled on board for nutrient and anion analyses. Subsequently, we sliced the top 10 cm of this core into 1-cm sections and fixed them in 4% formaldehyde for meiofaunal community analysis. The 2nd PUC was sub-sampled for CH₄ and porosity analyses, and we stored the remaining sediment in 2-cm slices at -30°C for stable isotope analysis. Besides the 10-m transect, we sampled 2 sites at ~ 100 (on the MV) and ~ 1100 m from the seep site (off the MV) with a megacorer (75.4 cm²). These samples were exclusively analyzed for community structure.

Pore-water geochemical analyses. Total alkalinity (TA) and hydrogen sulphide (H₂S) were measured immediately after pore-water extraction; TA by titrating against 0.05 M HCl while bubbling nitrogen through the sample (Ivanenkov & Lyakhin 1978) and H₂S using standard photometric procedures (Grasshoff et al. 1999) adapted for pore-waters with high (\cong mM) H₂S levels. Concentrations of all other species were analyzed at the National Oceanography Centre Southampton (NOCS). Sulphate (SO₄²⁻) was measured by ion chromatography (Dionex ICS2500), with reproducibility (determined by repeat analysis of a seawater standard as well as single anion standards) >1.5%. We measured dissolved CH₄ in sediment samples taken immediately after opening the cores using the headspace vial method (Reeburgh 2007). An aliquot of sediment (\cong 3 cm³) was withdrawn, placed in a glass vial, and 5 ml of 1M NaOH was added to prevent further microbial activity (Hoehler et al. 2000). The vial was crimped shut, and the sample shaken vigorously to release the gases. CH₄ concentration in the headspace was determined by gas chromatography (Agilent 6850) at the NOCS. These headspace CH₄ measurements were then converted to dissolved CH₄ concentrations following Hoehler et al. (2000). Depressurization and warming of the cores during sediment retrieval is likely to have led to degassing, so concentrations of CH₄ (which is generally oversaturated in pore-waters) and H₂S, to a lesser extent, represent minimum values. Therefore, profiles were compared relative to one another, rather than to measurements in other studies.

Meiofaunal community analysis. We washed the formaldehyde-fixed samples over a 32- μ m mesh sieve and extracted the meiofauna from the sediment by Ludox centrifugation (Heip et al. 1985). Meiofauna was then sorted, enumerated and identified at coarse taxonomic level. From each slice, \pm 100 nematodes were identified to genus level. *Sabatieria*, the dominant genus in all cores but one, was identified to species. Additionally,

we measured length (μm) and maximal width (μm) for each nematode from the top 0-5 cm, to estimate individual biomass using Andrassy's formula (Andrassy 1956) for wet body weight (wwt), adjusted for the specific gravity of marine nematodes (i.e. 1.13 g cm^{-3} ; $\mu\text{g wwt} = L \times W^2 / 1\,500\,000$). C weight was calculated as 12.4 % of wet weight (Jensen 1984).

Stable isotope analysis. Nematodes from the top 6 cm of each core were hand-picked for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ analysis. *Desmodora* ($n = 50$) and *Sabatieria* ($n = 50$) were picked separately, and the remaining genera were pooled to determine the "Mix" isotope value ($n = 100$). When not sufficiently abundant, *Desmodora* and/or *Sabatieria* were included in the "Mix" sample. Nematodes were rinsed with $2 \mu\text{m}$ filtered Milli-Q water, and then transferred to Milli-Q water in pre-combusted (550°C , 3 h) silver cups. After elutriation, nematodes were dried overnight at 60°C . Subsequently, we acidified samples and blanks in a desiccator containing 5 % HCl. Isotope signatures were measured on an EA-IRMS, a Flash EA 1112 coupled to a DeltaV advantage IRMS (Thermo Electron Instruments) with a single low volume oxidation/reduction reactor (Carman & Fry 2002). Samples were calibrated against VPDB and N_2 -Air with standards USGS40 and USGS41 (Qi et al. 2003) and all measurements were corrected for blanks. Isotope values were expressed in δ notation with respect to VPDB ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) and air ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$): $\delta X (\text{‰}) = [(R_{\text{sample}}/R_{\text{standard}}) - 1] \times 10^3$, where X is ^{13}C or ^{15}N and R is the isotope ratio (Post 2002).

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and scanning transmission electron microscopy energy dispersive x-ray (STEM-EDX) analysis. *Sabatieria* and *Desmodora*, from the seep sediment core, were imaged with TEM to check for symbionts or visible S detoxification structures. Subsequently, we conducted STEM-EDX analysis to determine the

chemical composition of internal structures. Nematodes were handled following Van Gaever et al. (2009b).

Data analysis. Individual nematode size measurements (length, width, length/width and biomass) were compared among cores using Kruskal-Wallis tests, followed by nonparametric pairwise comparisons using Behrens-Fisher tests with the R package npmc (Munzel & Hothorn 2001, Helms & Munzel 2008). Nematode size measurements were averaged per core and depth layer as geometric means corrected for data skewness (Middelburg et al. 1997, Soetaert et al. 2009). We performed multi-dimensional scaling (MDS) analysis on standardized nematode genus abundances to compare genus composition between cores. Diversity indices were Ln (\log_e)-transformed to highlight differences. We examined feeding ecology based on (1) $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of *Desmodora*, *Sabatieria* and “Mix”; and (2) buccal morphology of all genera following the classification of Wieser (1952), which assigns genera to one of 4 feeding types: selective deposit-feeder (1A), non-selective deposit-feeder (1B), epistrate feeder (2A) and predator/scavenger (2B). Isotope signatures were compared between *Sabatieria*, *Desmodora* and “Mix” using 1-way ANOVA, followed by post-hoc Tukey HSD tests. Trophic diversity was computed as the reciprocal of the trophic index (Heip et al. 1985). Spearman-rank correlations were computed between distance from the seep site and (1) genus diversity indices, (2) trophic diversity, and (3) stable isotope signatures. We performed univariate statistical analyses using R (R Development Core Team 2010), and multivariate analyses and computation of diversity indices in Primer v6 (Clarke & Gorley 2006).

RESULTS

Pore-water geochemistry

Fig. 2 shows concentration-depth profiles for H_2S , SO_4^{2-} , CH_4 and TA in pore-water from all cores. From the 4 cores, only the seep sediment core showed a clear decrease in SO_4^{2-} with depth, accompanied by a peak in H_2S (up to 22 mM) and an increase in CH_4 and TA as high as 1000 μM and 33.7 meq l^{-1} respectively. We observed very little change in SO_4^{2-} in the core taken 2 m from the seep site. However, H_2S , CH_4 and TA were enriched in the deeper sediment layers, relative to seawater,. Concentrations of all of these species in cores collected 5 and 10 m from the seep site were similar to seawater concentrations and varied little with depth.

Meiofaunal community structure

Meiofaunal densities were highest in the core taken 2 m from the seep site (3228.8 ind. 10 cm^{-2}). Although densities in the seep sediment core (794.8 ind. 10 cm^{-2}) and in the core taken at 5 m distance (825.3 ind. 10 cm^{-2}) were considerably lower, they were still elevated compared to those collected 10 (227.7 ind. 10 cm^{-2}), 100 (436.1 ind. 10 cm^{-2}) and 1100 m (424.3 ind. 10 cm^{-2}) from the seep site (Fig. 3). Nematodes were the most abundant (88.7 – 94.5 %) in all cores (Table 2). Meiofaunal densities in the seep sediment core below 1 cm, decreased sharply (Fig. 2). In comparison, densities in the core taken 2 m from the seep site decreased more gradually with depth. Meiofauna in the 2 cores retrieved farthest from seep influence penetrated deepest in the sediment.

Nematode size

Overall, total nematode biomass in the top 5 cm of the seep sediment core was almost 10x higher than that in the core taken 1100 m away (Fig. 3). Individual nematode size measurements (i.e. length, width, and biomass) differed significantly among cores ($p < 0.001$; Fig. 4) and peaked in the seep sediment core. Also nematode length/width ratios

varied significantly among cores ($p < 0.001$), with lowest ratios in the seep sediment core (Fig. 4C). *S. vasicola* and *S. punctata*, which dominated the seep sediment core, were on average 2416.5 ± 396.5 ($n = 42$) and 1130.8 ± 463.1 ($n = 33$) μm long respectively.

Nematode community structure

Nematode genus composition varied little among cores (Fig. 5, Table 3). *Sabatieria* dominated all samples, except at 2 m from the seep site, where *Rhabdocoma* (23 %) prevailed. All diversity indices correlated positively with distance from the seep site (Fig. 6), but these correlations were significant only for N_0 and EG(100) (N_0 : $r = 0.93$, $p = 0.008$ and EG(100): $r = 0.81$, $p = 0.049$). *Desmodora* was only abundant (i.e. $\geq 1\%$ of total) in cores within 5 m off the seep (Table 3).

Nematode feeding ecology

$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ranged between -40.7 ‰ and -21.3 ‰, and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ varied between 0.9 and 15.3 ‰ (Fig. 7). $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ($r = 0.34$, $p = 0.14$) and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ($r = 0.24$, $p = 0.28$) became heavier with increasing distance from the seep site, though the correlations were not significant. No clear pattern emerged when plotting stable isotope signatures vs. sediment depth (Fig. 7). “Mix” ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$: -31.2 ± 4.9 ‰, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$: 7.11 ± 3.9 ‰) was significantly more enriched in ^{13}C ($p = 0.02$) and ^{15}N ($p = 0.02$) than *Desmodora* ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$: -38.5 ± 2.0 ‰, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$: 4.6 ± 2.2 ‰). *Sabatieria* ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$: -36.3 ± 2.4 ‰, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$: 6.9 ± 1.5 ‰) and *Desmodora* displayed similar isotope values ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$: $p = 0.67$, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$: $p = 0.43$). Based on buccal morphology, deposit-feeders (1A + 1B) dominated all cores (data not shown), although trophic diversity increased with increasing distance from the seep site ($r = 0.70$, $p = 0.12$), and leveled off at 10 m distance.

TEM and STEM-EDX

TEM revealed several, but mostly disintegrated bacteria bordering the cuticle of *Desmodora* (Fig. 9). Additionally, electron-lucent structures were observed near the cuticle (Fig. 9B). STEM-EDX analysis showed these contained trace amounts of sulphur. We observed no symbionts or detoxification structures in *Sabatieria*.

DISCUSSION

CH₄ seepage and spatial variability in pore-water geochemistry

Elevated pore-water CH₄ levels in the Darwin MV seep sediment core indicated a CH₄ flux from below the sediment surface, corroborating the gas escape from the seep sediments during sampling. However, CH₄ concentrations dropped from 1 mM down to <0.001 mM over a 10-m distance, suggesting focused flow. Pore-fluid analyses indicated some anaerobic consumption by microbes (i.e. anaerobic oxidation of methane or AOM): SO₄²⁻ decreased rapidly with depth in the seep site pore-fluids, accompanied by an increase in TA and elevated H₂S concentrations (Reeburgh, 1976, Boetius et al. 2000, Knittel & Boetius 2009). The relatively small enrichments in H₂S, CH₄ and TA in the core taken 2 m from the seep site, suggest AOM presence here as well, but likely concentrated at depths exceeding the core length. The constancy in the concentrations of SO₄²⁻, TA, H₂S and CH₄ with depth in the cores taken at 5 and 10 m distance, suggest an absence of AOM. The high spatial variability in CH₄ flow at the Darwin MV illustrates the difficulty in taking replicate samples for pore-water geochemistry and associated fauna at seeps.

Impact of pore-water geochemistry on meiofaunal distribution and tolerance to high H₂S levels

At the Darwin MV, meiofaunal densities were much higher in and immediately near the seep site (2 m) compared to the sites showing no sign of seep influence in terms of pore-water geochemistry. Accordingly, Vanreusel et al. (2010) showed elevated meiofaunal

standing stock in seep compared to non-seep sediments for several other seep systems. The seep sediment core had high H₂S content (up to 22 mM), as shown for several other seeps (Barry et al. 1997, Levin et al. 2003, Sahling et al. 2002). These high H₂S levels impacted the vertical distribution in the sediment, in that the proportion of meiofauna confined to the sediment surface was highest in this core. Tolerance of high H₂S levels was genus (and species) specific. *Sabatieria* and *Desmodora*, which dominated the seep sediment core, were more tolerant to high H₂S than genera absent from this core.

In sulphidic environments, bacterial symbionts can help to detoxify H₂S (Ott et al. 2004). In bathyal oxygen minimum zone sediments, *Desmodora masira* had ectosymbionts (Bernhard et al. 2000). Although in our study, TEM cross-sections paralleled the annuli (in contrast to Bernhard et al. 2000), the low and irregular bacterial appearance implies that *Desmodora* from the seep sediment core did not harbour ectosymbionts. TEM showed electron-lucent structures near the cuticle resembling the sulphur inclusions described by Thiermann et al. (2000), but STEM-EDX analysis only detected traces of sulphur. However, elemental sulphur is known to leach from vesicles during chemical fixation, dehydration, and resin infiltration of biological samples, which may explain the low sulphur content (Lechaire et al. 2006). Increased body length is another adaptation to sulphidic conditions, and enables a fast migration between anoxic, sulphidic, and oxic, H₂S-free sediments (Schratzberger et al. 2004, Levin 2005). Accordingly, *S. punctata*, and *S. vasicola*, which dominated the seep sediment core, were amongst the longest nematodes in this study.

Meiofaunal and nematode community structure

Meiofaunal density patterns were mainly driven by the dominant taxon, i.e. the nematodes. Nematodes dominate most seep habitats (Shirayama & Ohta 1990, Robinson et al. 2004, Van

Gaever et al. 2009a, Van Gaever et al. 2009c), although some habitats are dominated by copepods (Van Gaever et al. 2006). In the Darwin MV seep sediment core, meiofauna-sized polychaetes were subdominant, similar to the REGAB mussel beds (Van Gaever et al. 2009a).

Nematode genus composition clearly differed between cores with and without CH₄ flow. Thus, CH₄ flow affected not only densities and biomass, but also composition. Genus diversity was lowest in the seep sediment core and increased in cores farther from the seep site, as shown in previous studies (Van Gaever et al. 2009a,c). *Desmodora* and *Sabatieria* also dominated the REGAB seep in the Gulf of Guinea (Van Gaever et al. 2009a), although in association with different habitats: the REGAB samples originated from clam and mussel fields with low H₂S content (<0.1 µM; Olu-Le Roy et al. 2009). *S. vasicola* and *S. punctata*, which dominated the Darwin MV seep sediment core, also occur in shallow waters (Vitiello 1970, Jensen et al. 1992, Franco et al. 2008). Accordingly, the dominant species at the REGAB seep (*S. mortenseni*), the Arctic Håkon Mosby MV (*Halomonhystera disjuncta*) (Van Gaever et al. 2006), and the Nordic Nyegga seep (*Terschellingia longicaudata*) (Van Gaever et al. 2009c) inhabit shallow waters as well. The presence of these species in both shallow waters and at a deep-sea seep suggests a possible connection between these habitats, rather than between deep-sea seeps (Van Gaever et al. 2009c).

Feeding ecology

δ¹³C values suggest thiotrophic C is part of the nematode diet up to 10 m from the seep site. Except for “Mix” in sediment layer 4-6 cm, which displays a δ¹³C of -21.3 ‰, all δ¹³C were less than -28 ‰. Organic matter produced through sulphur-oxidation has an average δ¹³C of -30 ‰ (RubisCO I) or -11 ‰ (RubisCO II), depending on the Rubisco enzyme involved (Robinson & Cavanaugh 1995). In comparison, photosynthetic C is characterized by δ¹³C

between -18 and -28 ‰ (Stewart et al. 2005), and CH₄-derived C is more depleted in ¹³C (δ¹³C < -50 ‰) (Levin & Michener 2002). Since we did not sample potential C sources for stable isotope analysis, we cannot estimate their relative contribution to the nematode diet. Nonetheless, a decrease in thiotrophic (RubisCO I) and an increase in photosynthetic C in the nematode diet farther from the seep site are implied by (1) the thicker hemipelagic sediment veneer on top of the cores, suggesting a higher availability of photosynthetic C, (2) an increase in trophic diversity, and (3) heavier δ¹³C.

Spies et al. (1983) and Van Gaever et al. (2006, 2009b) reported direct nematode consumption of sulphur-oxidisers. These bacteria live at the interface between oxic and anoxic sediments, where H₂S levels are ≤1 µM (Robertson & Kuenen 2006, Preisler et al. 2007). We doubt these bacteria inhabited the seep sediments given the absence of bacterial mats and the high H₂S levels at greater depth. In the core collected 2 m from the seep site, we observed no net SO₄²⁻ production, expected in the presence of sulphur-oxidisers. Nematodes can indirectly consume sulphur-oxidisers by assimilating dissolved organic matter (DOM) released upon bacterial lysis. Jensen (1987) suggested thiobiotic nematodes feed, at least partially, on DOM. However, further evidence is needed to support this hypothesis. Stable isotope signatures suggest different feeding strategies for *Sabatieria* and *Desmodora* compared with the bulk nematode community, which may explain their success. As with other seeps (Vanreusel et al. 2010), deposit-feeders dominated. Finally, although this exploratory study hints at how meiofauna interacts with the seep environment, much more, high-resolution research is required to understand their tolerance of sulphide, trophic interactions, and dispersal capacities.

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FIGURE CAPTIONS

Fig. 1. (A) Bathymetric map of the Darwin MV with the core locations on the MV indicated (©NOC 2009) (B) Schematic representation of the sampling strategy. PUC1: push core 1,

469 sampled for pore-water geochemistry and meiofaunal community analyses; PUC2: push core
470 2, sampled for pore-water CH_4 concentration, porosity and nematode stable isotope
471 signatures; MC: megacorer, sampled for meiofaunal community analyses

472 Fig. 2. Vertical pore-water profiles of H_2S , SO_4^{2-} , CH_4 and TA, and sedimentary densities of
473 nematodes and other meiofaunal taxa in relation to distance from the Darwin MV seep site.
474 Vertical arrows indicate seawater values. Note the different scales on the graphs

475 Fig. 3. Total nematode densities and biomass in relation to distance from the Darwin MV
476 seep site (0-5 cm)

477 Fig. 4. Mean nematode (A) length, (B) width, (C) length/width and (D) biomass in function of
478 sediment depth (cm), in relation to distance from the Darwin MV seep site

479 Fig.5. MDS plot of standardized genera-abundance data in relation to distance from the
480 Darwin MV seep site. Numbers indicate sediment depth (cm). Contour plots were not drawn
481 for the cores collected at 100 and 1100 m from the seep site as these overlapped

482 Fig. 6. Ln-transformed diversity indices based on nematode genera abundances in relation to
483 distance from the Darwin MV seep site. N_0 , N_1 , N_{inf} : Hill's numbers; J' : Pielou's evenness
484 number; H' : Shannon-Wiener Diversity index; $\text{EG}(100)$: expected number of genera for
485 $n=100$

486 Fig. 7. *Desmodora* (Des), *Sabatieria* (Sab) and "Mix" (A) C and (B) N isotope signatures in
487 relation to distance from the Darwin MV seep site. At 10-m distance, no $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ was available
488 for 0-2 cm due to the low amount of C, making the isotope value unreliable. Colours
489 represent sediment layers (white: 0-2 cm, grey: 2-4 cm, black: 4-6 cm)

490 Fig. 8. Nematode trophic diversity in relation to distance from the Darwin MV seep site (0-5
491 cm)

492 Fig. 9. TEM micrograph of a cross-section of *Desmodora* from the Darwin MV seep sediment
493 core. (A) Overview, (B) Detail showing bacteria associated with the cuticle. The white arrow
494 points to empty structures, possibly containing S prior to ethanol dehydration. Ba: bacterial
495 cell

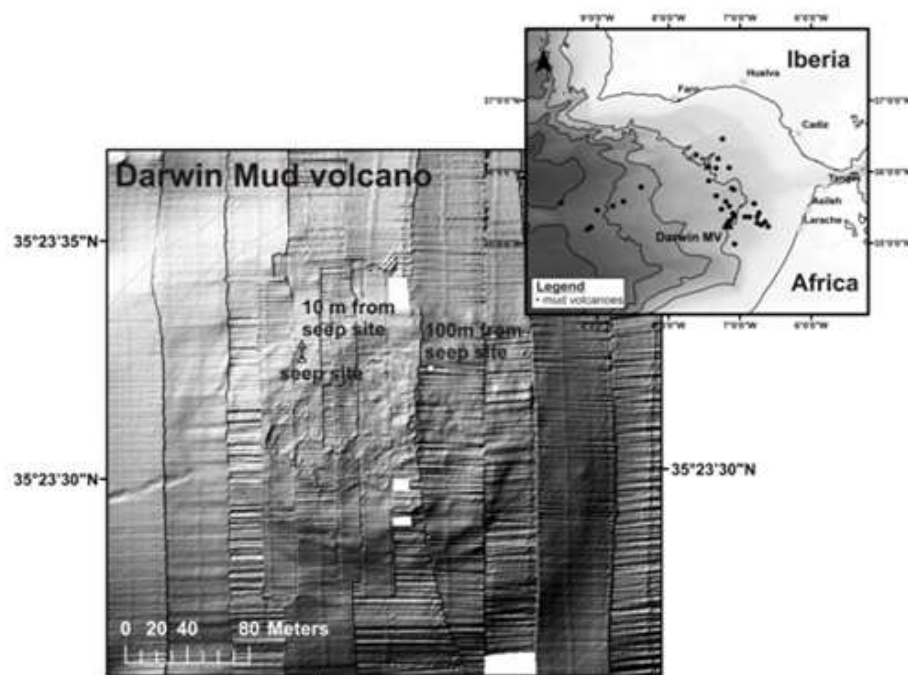
496

497 **FIGURES**

498 Fig. 1

499

A



B

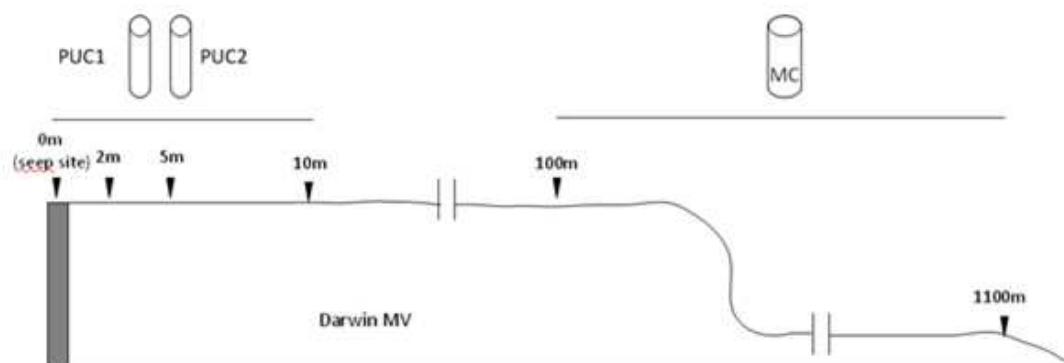
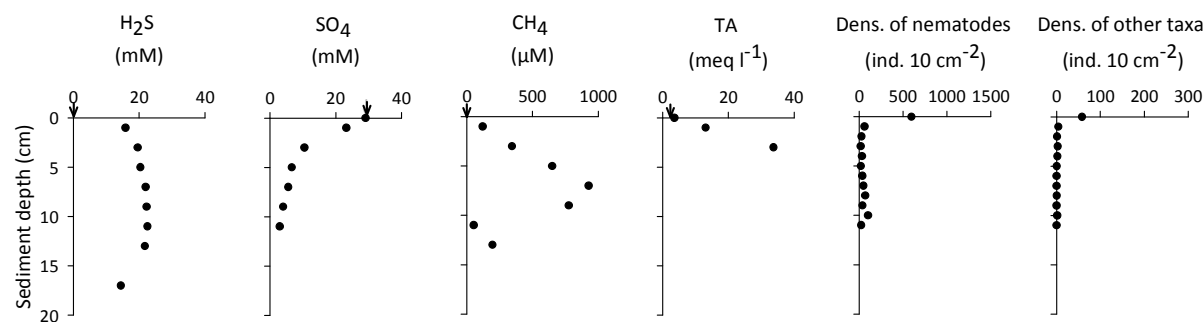
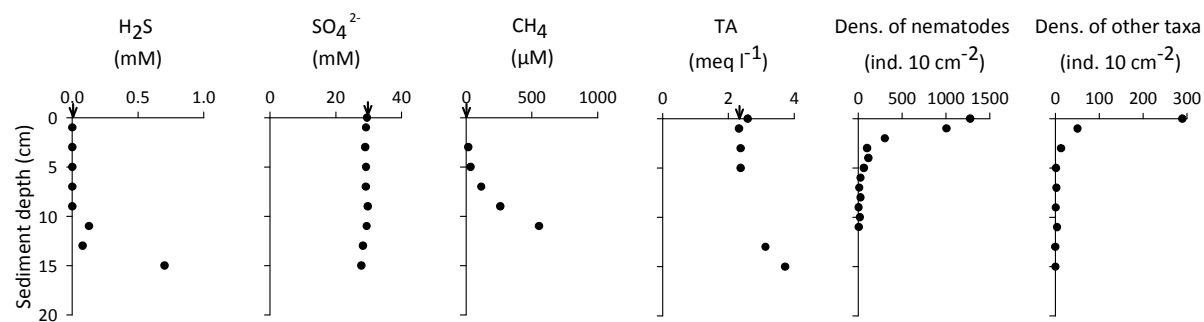


Fig. 2

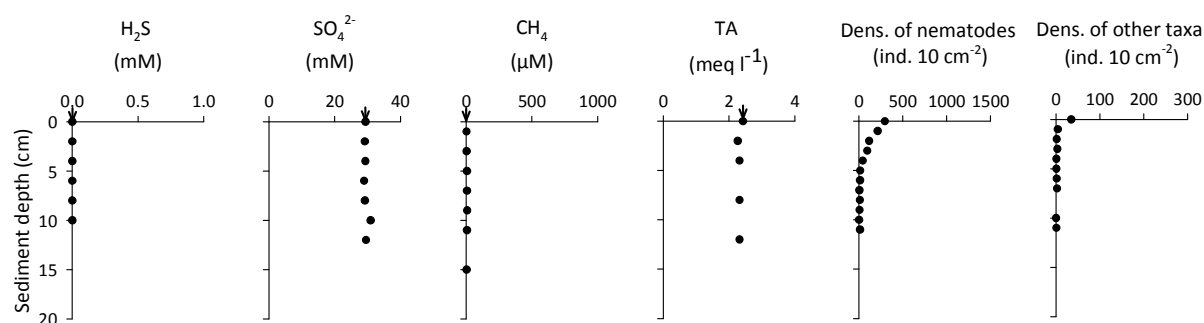
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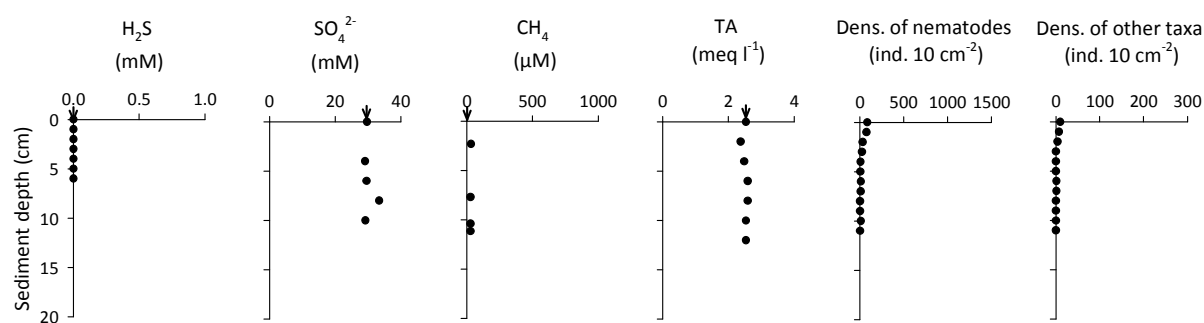
2 m from seep site



5 m from seep site



10 m from seep site

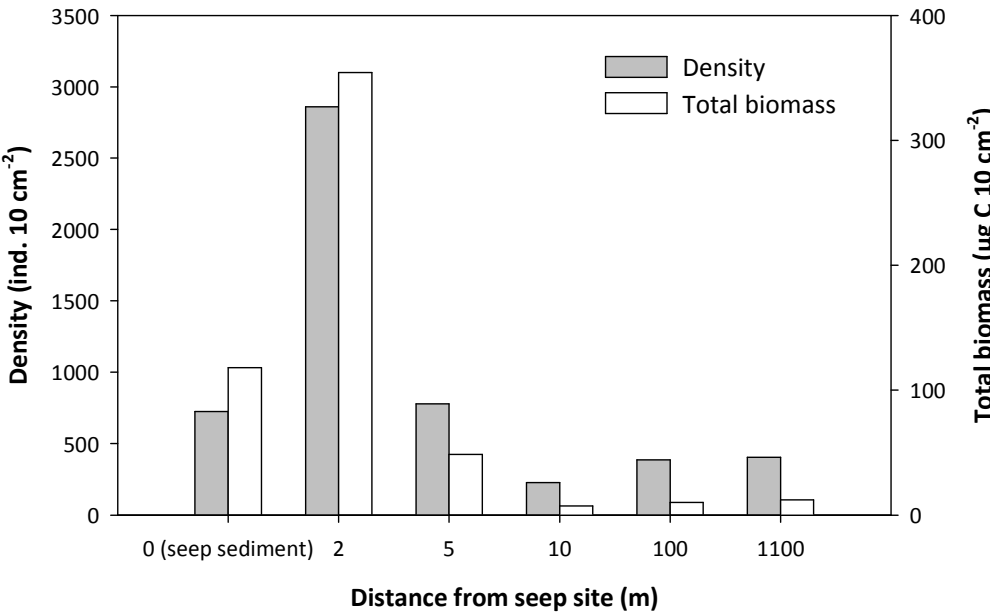


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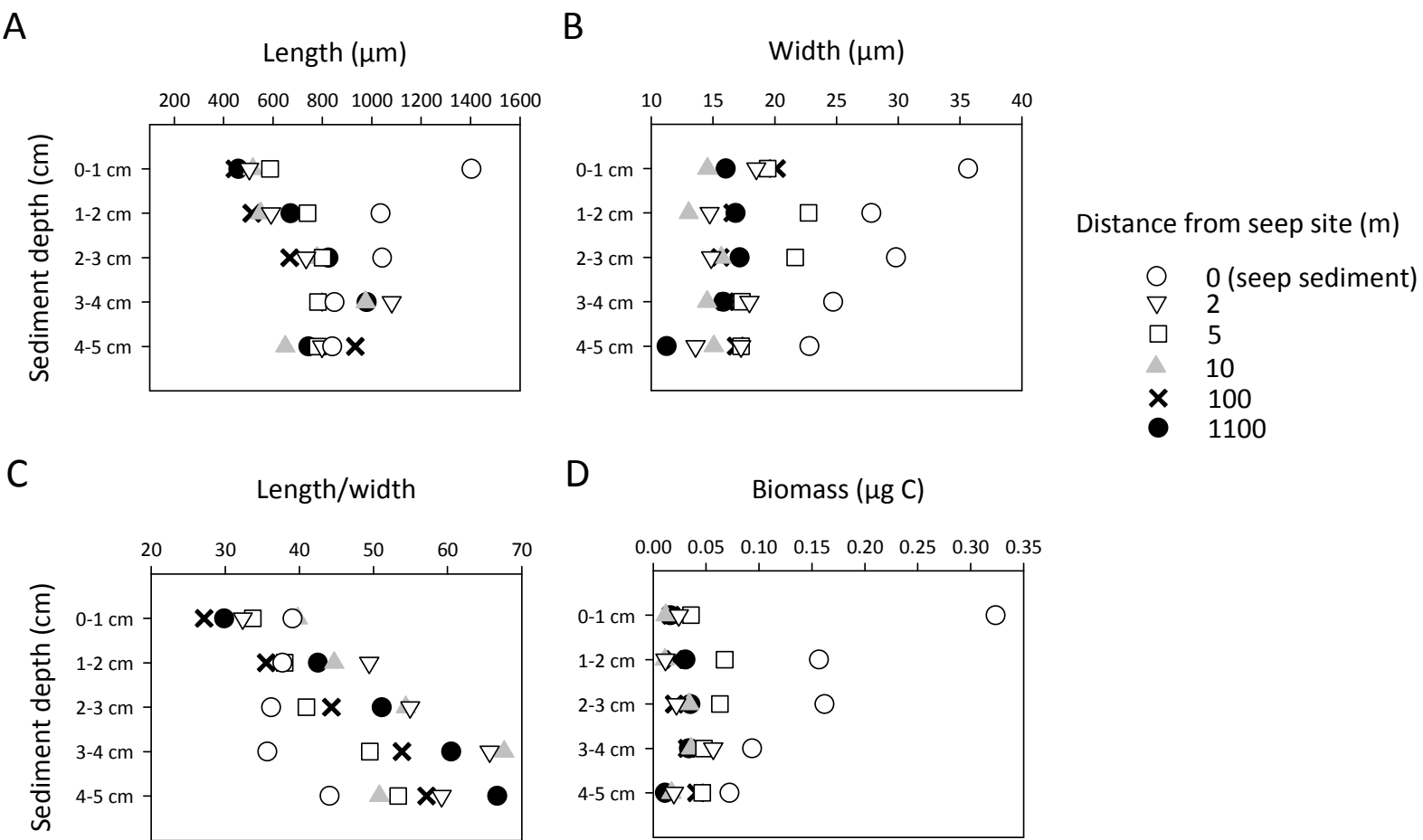
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506 Fig. 3

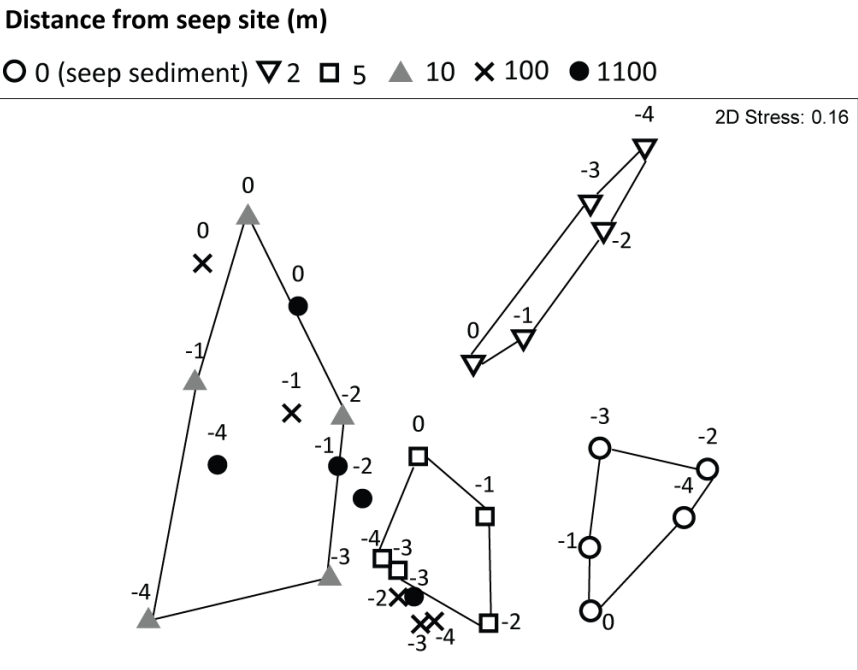
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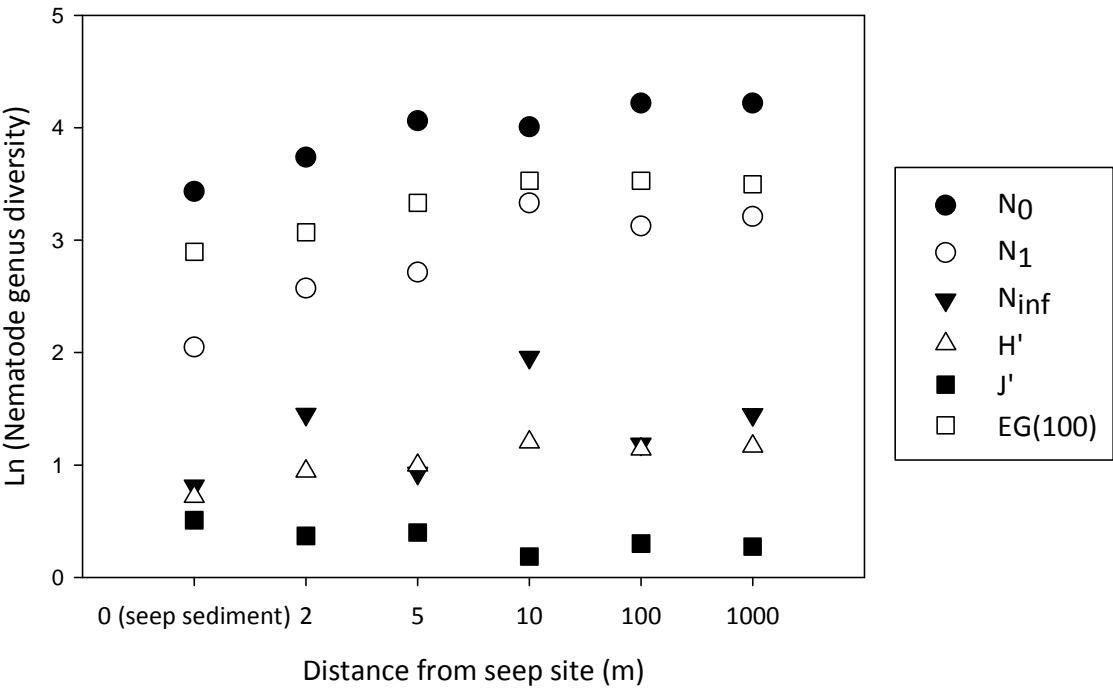
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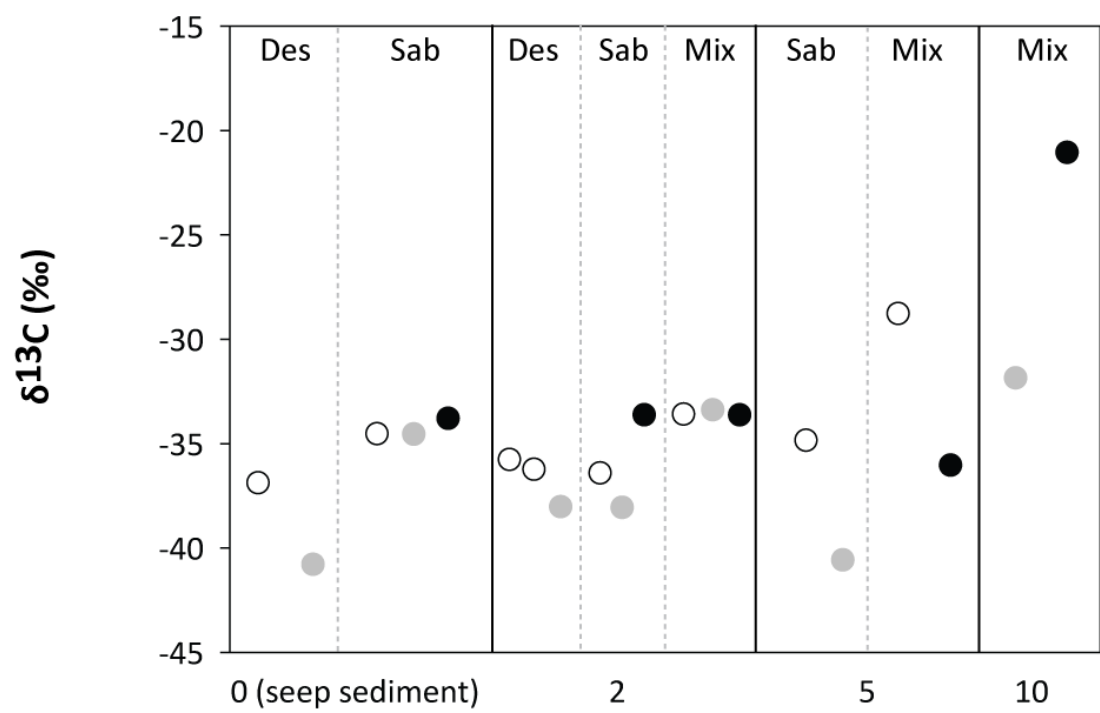
511 Fig. 5



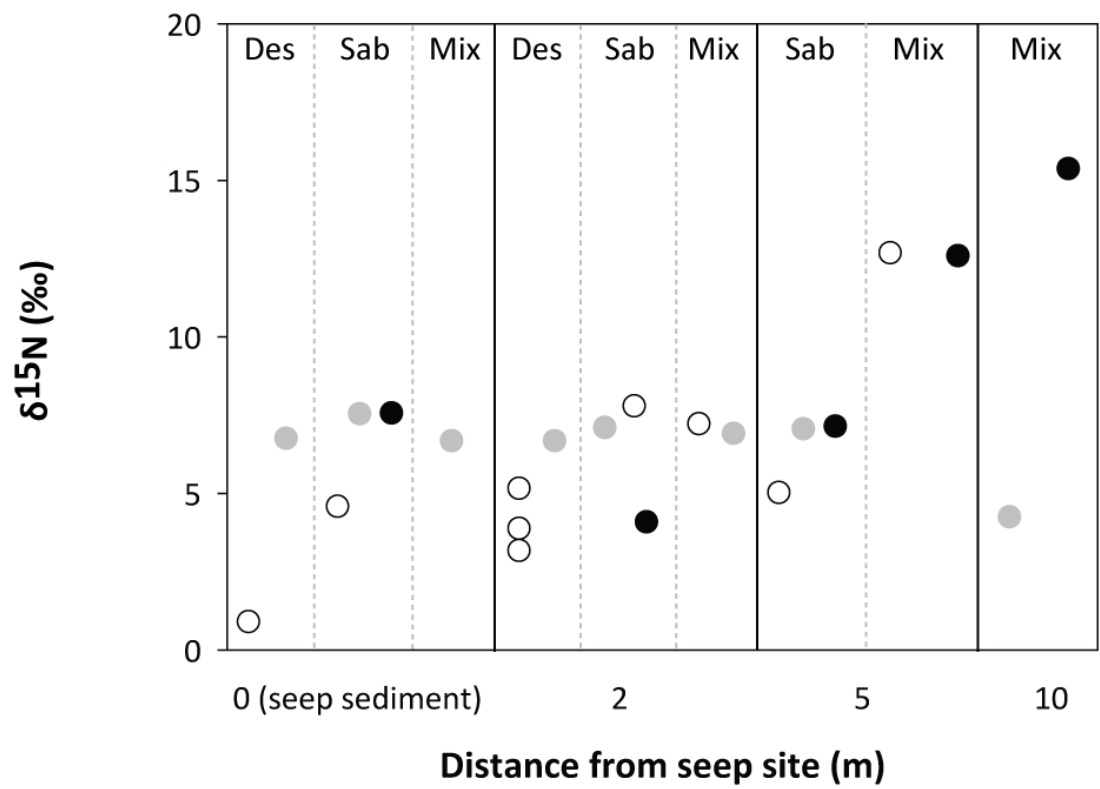
513 Fig. 6



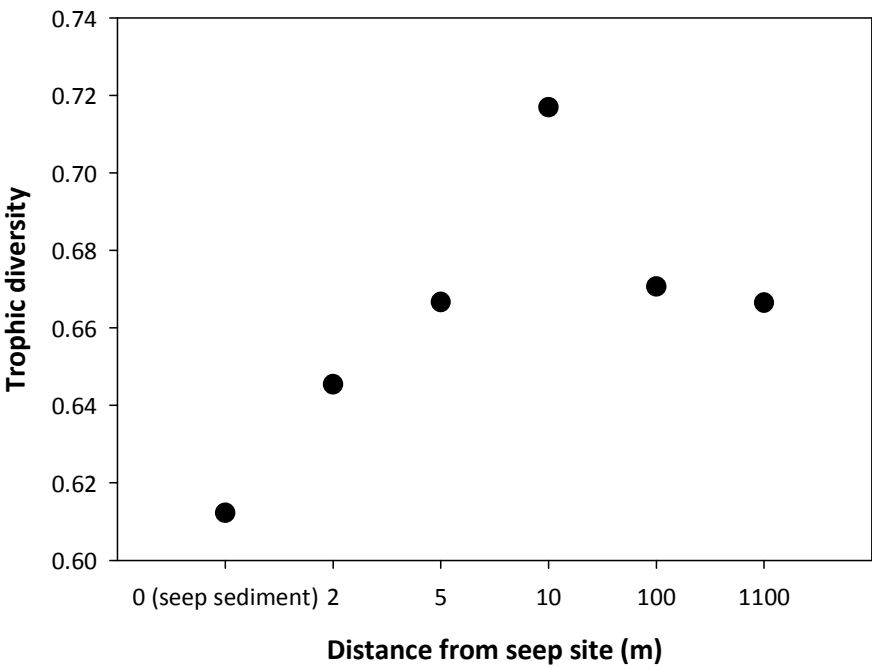
A



B

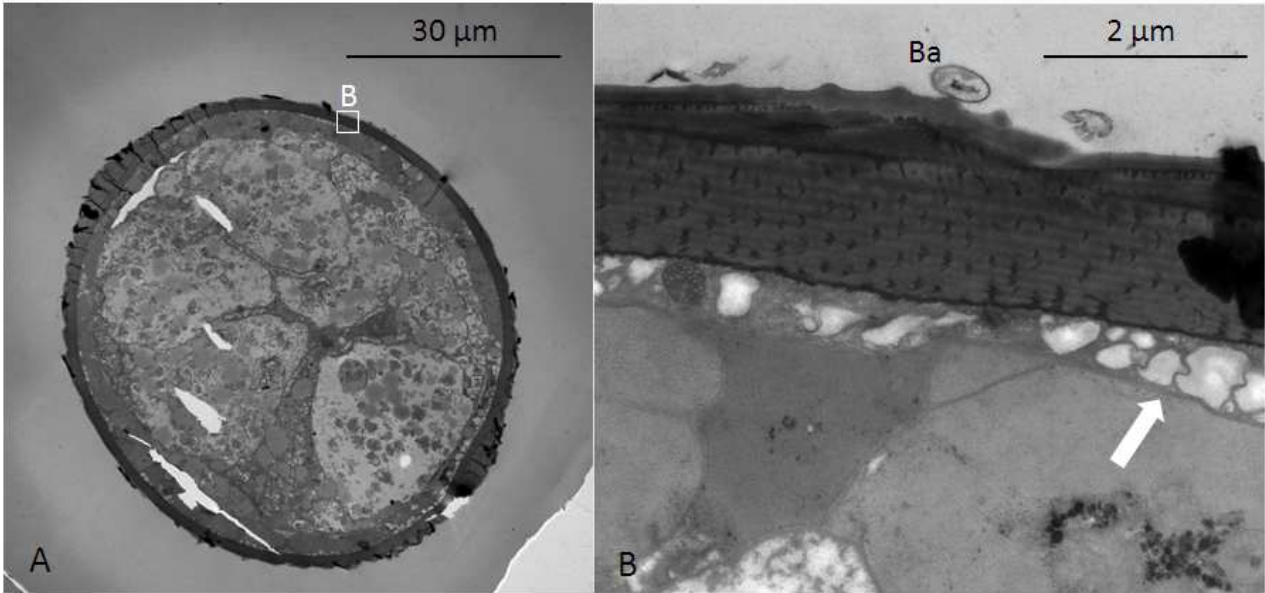


519 Fig. 8



520

521 Fig. 9



522

523

TABLE CAPTIONS

524 Table 1. Parameters of the sediment core locations in relation to distance from the Darwin MV
525 seep site. PUC: push core, MC: megacore

526 Table 2. Meiofaunal densities in relation to distance from the Darwin MV seep site (0-5 cm)

527 Table 3. Relative abundances of the most abundant nematode genera ($\geq 1\%$) in relation to
528 distance from the Darwin MV seep site (0-5 cm)

529 Table 4. Relative abundances of *Sabatieria* species in relation to distance from the Darwin MV
530 seep site (0-5 cm)

531 **TABLES**

532 Table 1

Distance from seep site (m)	Position	Height hemipelagic layer (% core length)	Gear	N° of cores	Analyses
0 (seep sediment)	35°23.539'N, 7°11.508'W	0	PUC	2	PUC1: meiofaunal community structure and pore-water geochemistry PUC2: porosity, pore-water CH ₄ concentration and nematode stable isotopes
2	35°23.543'N, 7°11.506'W	22-33	PUC	2	PUC1: meiofaunal community structure and pore-water geochemistry PUC2: porosity, pore-water CH ₄ concentration and nematode stable isotopes
5	35°23.543'N, 7°11.509'W	53-63	PUC	2	PUC1: meiofaunal community structure and pore-water geochemistry PUC2: porosity, pore-water CH ₄ concentration and nematode stable isotopes
10	35°23.547'N, 7°11.511'W	71	PUC	2	PUC1: meiofaunal community structure and pore-water geochemistry PUC2: porosity, pore-water CH ₄ concentration and nematode stable isotopes
100	35°23.537'N, 7°11.454'W	100	MC	1	meiofaunal community structure
1100	35°23.965'N, 7°11.121'W	100	MC	1	meiofaunal community structure

Taxon	Distance from seep site (m)					
	0 (seep sediment)	2	5	10	100	1100
Density (ind. 10 cm⁻²)						
Amphipoda		0.8				
Bivalvia	2.0		1.2		0.1	
Cladocera				0.4		
Cnidaria		4.3		0.8		0.3
Copepoda	7.84	121.9	12.5	3.9	16.9	7.7
Cumacea				0.4	0.3	0.1
Gastrotricha	0.4		1.6			
Halacaroidea	4.7	2.7	0.4			
Holothuroidea		1.2			7.7	0.4
Hydrozoa	0.4					
Isopoda		3.9	0.4	0.4	0.9	0.1
Kinorhyncha	0.8			0.4		
Nauplii	9.8	154.8	9.4	4.7	11.1	2.5
Nematoda	725.0	2860.1	779.5	227.7	387.9	405.4
Oligochaeta	0.8	9.8	5.1			0.1
Ostracoda		0.8	1.6		1.1	0.4
Polychaeta	42.7	54.5	7.1	9.8	8.7	5.9
Tanaidacea		3.5	0.8	0.4		
Tardigrada		8.6	5.9		1.5	1.2
Total	794.4	3226.9	825.3	248.4	436.1	424.3

536 Table 3

537

		Distance from seep site (m)									
0 (seep sediment)		2		5		10		100		1100	
<i>Sabatieria</i>	44.2	<i>Rhabdocoma</i>	23.5	<i>Sabatieria</i>	39.3	<i>Sabatieria</i>	14.1	<i>Sabatieria</i>	30.3	<i>Sabatieria</i>	23.6
<i>Desmodora</i>	19.2	<i>Amphimonhystrella</i>	18.6	<i>Thalassomonhystera</i>	7.8	<i>Molgolaimus</i>	11.4	<i>Thalassomonhystera</i>	8.6	<i>Thalassomonhystera</i>	9.6
<i>Ethmolaimidae n.gen.</i>	8.2	<i>Sabatieria</i>	14.4	<i>Desmodora</i>	5.6	<i>Daptonema</i>	6.4	<i>Hopperia</i>	6.0	<i>Acantholaimus</i>	7.0
<i>Desmoscolex</i>	6.0	<i>Ethmolaimidae n.gen.</i>	8.0	<i>Acantholaimus</i>	4.4	<i>Acantholaimus</i>	6.0	<i>Acantholaimus</i>	5.0	<i>Amphimonhystrella</i>	5.7
<i>Tricoma</i>	2.5	<i>Daptonema</i>	6.3	<i>Molgolaimus</i>	4.0	<i>Thalassomonhystera</i>	5.7	<i>Molgolaimus</i>	3.4	<i>Theristus</i>	5.7
<i>Amphimonhystrella</i>	2.5	<i>Desmodora</i>	5.3	<i>Microlaimus</i>	3.8	<i>Halalaimus</i>	4.4	<i>Diplopeltula</i>	2.8	<i>Halalaimus</i>	4.1
<i>Linhomoeus</i>	2.2	<i>Tricoma</i>	3.8	<i>Halalaimus</i>	3.8	<i>Theristus</i>	4.4	<i>Halalaimus</i>	2.6	<i>Hopperia</i>	4.1
<i>Comesa</i>	1.6	<i>Linhomoeus</i>	1.9	<i>Aegialolaimus</i>	2.0	<i>Amphimonhystrella</i>	4.0	<i>Leptolaimus</i>	2.4	<i>Molgolaimus</i>	2.7
<i>Thalassomonhystera</i>	1.1	<i>Molgolaimus</i>	1.7	<i>Hopperia</i>	2.0	<i>Syringolaimus</i>	3.4	<i>Amphimonhystrella</i>	2.2	<i>Leptolaimus</i>	2.5
<i>Cyartanema</i>	1.1	<i>Thalassomonhystera</i>	1.5	<i>Amphimonhystrella</i>	2.0	<i>Sphaerolaimus</i>	3.0	<i>Greefiella</i>	1.7	<i>Diplopeltula</i>	2.3
		<i>Theristus</i>	1.5	<i>Syringolaimus</i>	1.8	<i>Nemanema</i>	2.7	<i>Microlaimus</i>	1.7	<i>Aegialolaimus</i>	2.1
		<i>Microlaimus</i>	1.3	<i>Desmoscolex</i>	1.6	<i>Leptolaimus</i>	2.4	<i>Theristus</i>	1.7	<i>Syringolaimus</i>	2.1
		<i>Leptolaimoides</i>	1.1	<i>Tricoma</i>	1.5	<i>Microlaimus</i>	2.4	<i>Desmoscolex</i>	1.5	<i>Cervonema</i>	1.8
				<i>Monhystrella</i>	1.1	<i>Halichoanolaimus</i>	2.4	<i>Halichoanolaimus</i>	1.5	<i>Daptonema</i>	1.8
				<i>Leptolaimus</i>	1.1	<i>Aegialolaimus</i>	2.4	<i>Cervonema</i>	1.4	<i>Neochromadora</i>	1.8
				<i>Nyctonema</i>	1.1	<i>Oxystomina</i>	1.7	<i>Neochromadora</i>	1.4	<i>Doliolaimus</i>	1.4
				<i>Rhabdocoma</i>	1.1	<i>Neochromadora</i>	1.7	<i>Aegialolaimus</i>	1.2	<i>Oxystomina</i>	1.4
						<i>Rhabdocoma</i>	1.7	<i>Monhystrella</i>	1.2	<i>Desmoscolex</i>	1.2
						<i>Linhystera</i>	1.3	<i>Oxystomina</i>	1.2	<i>Leptolaimoides</i>	1.2
						<i>Leptolaimoides</i>	1.3	<i>Campylaimus</i>	1.0	<i>Microlaimus</i>	1.2
						<i>Hopperia</i>	1.3	<i>Linhystera</i>	1.0		
						<i>Prototricoma</i>	1.0	<i>Omicronema</i>	1.0		
						<i>Metadesmolaimus</i>	1.0	<i>Paracomesoma</i>	1.0		
						<i>Linhomoeus</i>	1.0	<i>Prototricoma</i>	1.0		
								<i>Syringolaimus</i>	1.0		

538

539

540 Table 4

Distance from seep site (m)											
0 (seep sediment)		2		5		10		100		1100	
Species	%	Species	%	Species	%	Species	%	Species	%	Species	%
<i>S. vasicola</i>	28.5	<i>S. bitumen</i>	38.0	<i>S. bitumen</i>	40.7	<i>S. bitumen</i>	39.5	<i>S. ornata</i>	10.5	<i>S. stekhoveni</i>	51.6
<i>S. punctata</i>	20.8	<i>S. ornata</i>	34.7	<i>S. aff. breviseta</i>	16.3	<i>S. stekhoveni</i>	19.7	<i>S. bitumen</i>	10.2	<i>S. aff. breviseta</i>	9.5
<i>S. stekhoveni</i>	18.2	<i>S. propisinna</i>	17.5	<i>S. propisinna</i>	16.3	<i>S. ornata</i>	15.8	<i>S. demani</i>	7.2	<i>S. propisinna</i>	7.9
<i>S. ornata</i>	10.1	<i>S. stekhoveni</i>	9.7	<i>S. demani</i>	12.2	<i>S. propisinna</i>	13.2	<i>S. stekhoveni</i>	5.2	<i>S. conicauda</i>	6.7
<i>S. aff. breviseta</i>	8.3			<i>S. stekhoveni</i>	11.7	<i>S. demani</i>	11.8	<i>S. aff. breviseta</i>	3.4	<i>S. demani</i>	5.7
<i>S. conicauda</i>	4.7			<i>S. ornata</i>	2.7			<i>S. conicauda</i>	2.7	<i>S. lawsi</i>	5.7
<i>S. demani</i>	4.7							<i>S. punctata</i>	2.0	<i>S. ornata</i>	5.7
										<i>S. punctata</i>	4.3
										<i>S. vasicola</i>	2.9

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542